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THE GREAT mechanical impulses of the age, of which most of us are so proud, are a mere passing fever, half speculative, half childish. People will discover at last that royal roads to anything can no more be laid in iron than they can in dust. . . . There was always more in the world than men could see, walked they ever so slowly; they will see it no better for going fast. . . . We shall be obliged at last to confess, what we should long ago have known, that the really precious things are thought and sight, not pace.

JOHN RUSKIN, *"Modern Painters"*

Vol. XIII No. 3

Pi Lambda Theta Journal

The Official National Organ of Pi Lambda Theta

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PI LAMBDA THETA JOURNAL

MARCH 1935

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NO. 3

Perceptual Units in Learning

MAY V. SEAGOE

THE GROWING emphasis on integration in education is obvious, particularly in the field of curriculum construction. This movement, which has its origin in the philosophy of John Dewey, traceable in turn to Pestalozzi and Rousseau, is based on a philosophical rather than a scientifically demonstrated hypothesis. It was to test the basic assumption involved that the experiments reported here were devised.

HISTORICAL REVIEW

Studies of the learning process related to this problem have been, for the most part, whole-part experiments. Related investigations of context and its relation to learning, some transfer studies, experiments on degree of meaningful organization, and even certain evaluations of distribution of practice are, however, pertinent. No attempt will be made here to cite individual experiments,[1] but rather to indicate trends.

Interest in the problem, as judged by the number of articles presented each year, has undergone two peaks. The first high point developed between 1900 and 1905, immediately following the experiments of Steffens; the second and higher rise in interest developed immediately after 1917 and has maintained itself to the present. The type of material used for experimentation has changed, however. The earlier studies and approximately two-fifths of those since 1905 have used memorization of verbal material as the sole basis for the conclusions drawn. In 1910 other types of laboratory material were introduced, continuing in an increasing proportion to the present. Since 1920 types of material ordinarily used in the classroom have risen to prominence.

As for the results, from 1900 to 1905 investigators were unanimous in endorsing "whole presentation." From 1906 to 1915 they were somewhat uncertain, the number of articles presented on both sides being approximately equal. In 1917 and for several years after, following the experiments of Pechstein and Reed, some modification of the "whole method" appeared superior. In 1925 the evidence in favor of the "whole method" again showed a marked rise above that for the "part method," a tendency maintained to the present. About the only points on which investigators agree fairly generally are that the spontaneous response is some form of part method, that greater maturity or higher intelligence on the part of the subjects favors whole presentation, and that the advantage of whole presentation is greater with material which is continuous, meaningful, logically related, and comparatively equal in difficulty.

Several factors may have contributed to the general disagreement. In the first place, nowhere is there a definition of a "whole" or "part"

[1] Those interested in the problem will find a partial list of such studies in J. A. McGeoch's "The Psychology of Human Learning: a Bibliography"; in the *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 30, pp. 1-62. (January, 1933.) A more complete discussion is presented in the author's dissertation of the same title filed in the Stanford University Library.

except in terms of length of unit. Earlier experiments have been studies of attention- and memory-span rather than studies of perceptual units. In the second place, there is no agreement in definition of "economy of learning." Some experimenters have used immediate recall, some delayed recall, some error scores, some time scores. In the non-verbal laboratory materials the failure to check retention is particularly marked. In the third place, most of the materials emphasize the latter or stamping-in section of the learning curve, neglecting the earlier or perceptual part where the effect of different types of original presentation might be expected to be most evident. Finally, in many cases there was a lack of proper experimental control.

Present Significance

Recently the hoary whole-part problem has risen to importance because of two developments, one in the field of educational philosophy reflected in educational method, and the other in psychology proper. The first is the progressive education movement, the second Gestalt psychology. Yet along with the Dewey concepts in educational theory are taught Thorndikian concepts of the learning process, without any apparent recognition of their fundamental incompatibility or of the promise of Gestalt psychology for a resolution of the difficulty.

The contrast will perhaps be more apparent if the tenets of the schools of thought involved are summarized. For Thorndike, learning is connection-forming: elements are the units and learning consists of linking elements into wholes. Criticisms of Thorndike's viewpoint have been based on his pre-supposition of specific stimulus-response bonds, his emphasis on the element or part as the primary unit in learning, his tendency to lean on the trial-and-error explanation of the original successful response, and the inconclusiveness of his experiments for the principles stated. Dewey, on the other hand, emphasizes problem-solving or the perception of relationships involved in creative effort as the primary category in learning. The Gestalt psychologists, in common with the educational integrationists, emphasize the perception of relationships as the fundamental factor in learning; they define learning as a reorganization of the perceptual field so that the configuration is seen as leading toward a goal.

The need for an analysis of the factors influencing efficiency of learning is evident. The form of presentation of the material to be learned is one factor, an element of current importance. Whole-part experiments have been inconclusive. Gestalt psychology, with its concept of a qualitative whole, offers a new approach, holding a possible contribution to the principles governing curriculum integration.

There is no assumption in the present discussion that there is any one absolutely superior method of presentation, but rather that the method of greatest economy will depend upon a number of conditions. An attempt has been made, however, to isolate one of those conditions, namely the type of material used. Here a whole is defined in the Gestalt manner as a definitely segregated, independent pattern possessing unity, coherence, and meaning in itself above that implied by its parts. Conversely, a part is defined as an element in a total situation, essential to the meaning of the whole, but devoid of that peculiar meaning when isolated from the whole.

Materials were devised with five principles in mind. The problems must involve wholes in the defined sense, capable of subdivision into parts in the defined sense. They must be relatively simple in order to come within the limits of laboratory control and to permit mastery within a relatively short time. They must be novel to the learner, difficult to practice between sittings, and concerned with as natural situations as possible in order to make the findings applicable to classroom practice.

Experiment 1

If whole learning is superior when a whole is defined as a configuration, it should be possible so to arrange the situation that so-called part learning would be superior when each part in itself more nearly meets the definition of a whole than does the aggregate. It was this corollary of the hypothesis that Experiment 1 was designed to test.

The materials consisted of four block designs

of sixteen blocks each. The first design consisted of four equivalent parts arranged symmetrically, yet without any unity other than that given by orientation and spatial juxtaposition. The second design had slightly more integration, and the third was well integrated. The fourth was also well integrated, but the four segments were different rather than being the same motif turned in different ways, resulting in less wholeness for each part. According to the hypothesis, the part method would be expected to prove superior on the first problem, less so on the second, the whole method slightly superior on the third, and definitely so on the fourth. Coefficients of reliability for the problems based on error scores for subjects using the whole method were .52, .94, .61, and .72 respectively.

Subjects used were twenty-two students, largely graduates, taking courses in psychology at Stanford University. Groups were assigned to whole or part procedure on a random basis, resulting in demonstrated equivalence in sex, maturity, and Thorndike intelligence score. Each subject learned to put together two designs by the part method and two by the whole method.

When the subject had been seated, the blocks were presented to him in a defined shuffled position, together with a copy of the correct design corresponding to the blocks. In whole presentation all sixteen of the blocks and the total design were given to him; in part presentation he was given the four blocks and the design for each corner in turn. Both the time and the number of moves required for reproduction of the design were recorded, the making of the design being repeated until there were no false moves.

The results are summarized in Table 1. The expected outcome is given in the first row, and the results according to the three criteria used arranged in order of their fineness are listed below. Results are in terms of probabilities or chances in 100 of a true result, based on the ratio of the difference between the means of the two groups to the probable error of the difference. "W" indicates whole presentation, "P" part. The figures show small but consistent differences in the expected direction except for the first problem.

TABLE I. RESULTS, EXPERIMENT 1

Criterion	*Design*			
Hypothetical superiority	P	P	W	W
Time required	P 57	P 76	W 86	W 94
Errors made	W 77	P 89	W 93	W 93
Trials required	W 98	P 75	W 100	W 100

The position of this problem as the introductory one may have influenced this result, as may have its comparatively low reliability, but it is probable that the difference in the direction in which the four segments pointed, giving them an element of wholeness which made a perception of the relationships of the four parts necessary, was the confusing factor. Within the limitations set by the material, this experiment seemed to substantiate the hypothesis that the superiority of the whole method varies with the degree of integration of the unit used.

SERIES A. EXPERIMENTS 2 THROUGH 5, OTHER LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS

The purpose of this series was to determine under laboratory conditions whether material meeting the Gestalt definition is more easily learned when presented as a unit or when segmented. The purpose in using a number of different types of material was to ascertain the existence or non-existence of a principle independent of the specific problem used.

The subjects were thirty-four boys within one year of twelve chronologically, paired on the basis of chronological age, intelligence quotient, and mental age. No statistically significant differences were present in these factors. In addition, any possible inequality was rotated out by presenting to each individual two of the four problems by the whole method, the other two by the part method.

In this case the number of trials was held constant, record being made of time and of errors. During original learning ten trials were permitted. Twenty-eight days later retention was checked by five more trials similar to trials six through ten.

Experiment 2 involved tracing a diamond-shaped groove in a brass plate with only the mirrored image of the hand and pattern visible. Errors were electrically counted. The best esti-

mate of the reliability of the problem as obtained from eight methods of computation was .85. In trials one through five, subjects learning by the whole method traced the entire figure in a clockwise direction five times. On the same trials subjects learning by the part method traced side one five times, side three five times, side two five times, and side four five times. Following trials one through five, designated as "presentation," five more trials constituting a "mastery" test were given. These trials were tracings of the entire design for both groups. Trials eleven through fifteen, "retention," were a repetition of the mastery test twenty-eight days later. Results for Series A are summarized in Table II in terms of probabilities of a true difference as based on both time and error scores for the "presentation," "mastery," and "retention" trials. In Experiment 2, results obtained from time- and error-scores are so contradictory that it is impossible to draw any valid conclusion in favor of either method of presentation. The failure of this experiment to conform to the results obtained from the remainder of the experiments is probably attributable to the larger component of motor skill and the smaller ideational factor present in this type of problem, a viewpoint corroborated by the experiments of Pechstein. There is also the fact that in this problem there is comparatively little difference between segments or between the whole and its segments, a difference more marked in other experiments.

Experiment 3 consisted of learning a geometric number code, the reliability of which was

TABLE II. RESULTS, SERIES A

Experiment	*Trials*	*Time*	*Errors*
2. Mirror Drawing	1-5 Presentation	W 53	P 94
	6-10 Mastery	W 69	P 91
	11-15 Retention	W 71	P 89
3. Number Code	1-5 Presentation	P 100	P 100
	6-10 Mastery	W 93	W 99
	11-15 Retention	W 88	W 95
4. Block Design	1-5 Presentation	P 96	P 100
	6-10 Mastery	W100	W100
	11-15 Retention	W 95	W100
5. Chess Pattern	1-5 Presentation	P 100	P 100
	6-10 Mastery	W100	W100
	11-15 Retention	W 76	W 81

estimated as above .85. In trials one through five, subjects learning by the whole method were given thirty seconds at each trial to practice on the nine code numbers presented as a geometric form appropriately numbered, then asked to reproduce as many of the code figures as possible with the code removed. On the same trials, those learning by the part method had five practice periods of ten seconds each on each third of the code presented out of its geometric context. Trial six for both groups was a recall test for all numbers, and trials seven through ten were relearning tests for all numbers, a procedure repeated later for trials eleven through fifteen. The results in Table II show consistency between time and error scores in demonstrating that the part method results in some economy during presentation, but that in terms of mastery and of retention the whole method is superior. This is true in spite of the fact that the method of practice and testing made attention to the parts rather than to the whole the procedure for learning.

Experiment 4 used one of the block designs included in Experiment 1 with college students. The reliability of the design estimated from the boys' responses was .83. The procedure was similar, except that five trials by either whole or part methods were given, followed by five on the total design instead of permitting an unlimited number of trials. The results in Table II again show essentially the same fact as did Experiment 3, with a greater weighting in favor of the whole method. That is, though part presentation results in some immediate economy in time and errors during presentation, whole presentation is eventually superior in terms of mastery and retention.

Experiment 5 consisted of the reproduction of a pattern formed of chess figures placed on a board. An element of wholeness was given to the six figures by placing them in a triangular arrangement, the taller figures at the back with the smaller figures resembling them in front in each case. The reliability of the problem was around .80. Subjects learning by the whole method were given six seconds on each trial to look at the total pattern, followed by attempted reproduction. Those learning by the part method

were given five trials of two seconds to look at each third of the pattern. Mastery and retention tests were given in the usual manner. The results in Table II confirm those for Experiments 3 and 4, namely that part presentation is more economical in immediate performance on segments, but that it does not carry over to mastery and retention as does whole presentation.

Summarizing the results for Series A, it seems that (1) part learning results in a saving of time and errors in original presentation, (2) whole learning is most economical in terms of mastery and retention, (3) these generalizations apply to problems involving a large ideational component, but the problem involving skill for the most part fails to show such a difference, and (4) the differences supporting these generalizations, though small, are consistent.

A word of explanation regarding the decreasing difference between the two methods is needed. Part presentation differed from whole only in trials one through five; from that point on the groups used the same procedure. Thus part learning included some whole learning, while whole learning included no part learning. The actual difference between the methods, then, particularly in retention, is probably greater than that shown by the data.

In conclusion, Series A shows that when a whole is defined as a Gestalt or integrated unit, and where that unit involves a relatively large ideational factor, the material is more economically presented as a whole as judged by ease of mastery and retention. The part method, however, results in a saving in original presentation.

Series B, Experiments 6 Through 10, Classroom Experiments

What is the meaning of this principle for classroom procedure? The experiments of Series B were designed to answer this question. The problems merely suggest possibilities: Decroly has already demonstrated its meaning for the teaching of beginning reading, writing, and spelling, Barton for typewriting, and Roberta Brown in teaching piano music. Such experiments are admittedly less carefully controlled and more complex than laboratory tests, but inasmuch as teachers work under classroom and not laboratory conditions it seemed desirable to test the principle under normal circumstances.

The subjects for Series B were drawn from beginning eighth grade classes, the population varying from 69 to 140 for the various experiments. Subjects in Experiments 6, 7, and 10 were paired on the basis of age, intelligence, sex, and classroom background. In Experiments 8 and 9 control was achieved by a rotated group method. In each case the groups were demonstrated to be approximately equivalent, without statistically significant differences.

Experiment 6 used social studies material. A 277-word description of the historical and geographic factors leading to the establishment of a penal colony in Australia was prepared. The "whole" group was presented with this material interwoven in its relationships; the "part" group was given the material dealing with the geography of the country segregated from that dealing with history. The same facts and very nearly the same wording were used in both forms. The time for study was constant. The test was of the completion type, consisting of seventeen questions of fact, one question concerning the relationship between the geographic and historical factors, and one asking for a statement of the central idea of the discussion. The test was repeated twenty-eight days after the original learning. The reliability of the test was .85. Results are presented in Table III, again in terms of probability. The whole form proved superior in scores on the test, on a subjective estimate of whether the relationship between the two factors was stated in the summary, and in the number of words written in summary.

Experiment 7 applied the principle to the teaching of foreign language. The material was a thirty-word joke involving twenty-five different

Table III. Results, Series B

Experiment	*Mastery*	*Retention*
6. Social Studies	W99	W 76
7. French Translation	W99	W100
8. Manuscript Writing	W97	W 88
9. Rote Songs	Whole method superior	unreliably
10. Nonsense Poem	Order is verse, line	poem, and

French words. The "whole" group learned the French equivalents from the joke form, the English translation of each word being written directly below the French. The "part" group learned the equivalents in alphabetical vocabulary form. Both groups were tested after a constant period of study on both the joke and the vocabulary forms, a test which was repeated twenty-eight days later. The reliabilities of the tests were estimated as above .90. The results showed a tendency for each group to excel the other when tested on the form on which original learning took place, but when the scores on both tests were totaled in order to equate this factor, the group learning by the whole method made the better showing as shown in Table III.

In Experiment 8 a problem in manuscript writing, with which none of the subjects was familiar, was presented. Two similar words were selected. The group using the whole method was asked to make a trial attempt, practice the word ten times, then submit to a test attempt. The group using the part method was asked for a trial attempt, practiced each stroke involved ten times the number of times it occurred in the word, then took a test. The method was reversed for the second word. Retention was checked twenty-eight days later by the recall method. In order to make scoring as objective as possible, samples of five grades of performance on each word were arranged as a scale, each specimen of writing was rated three times independently by comparison with the scale, and the average of the three ratings assigned as its score. For both words whole presentation resulted in the greater improvement, as shown in Table III.

In Experiment 9 two methods of teaching rote songs were contrasted. Two songs were taught to four classes, the method being rotated. Whole presentation consisted of singing the entire song to the class, repetition by the teacher with the children, and an attempt by the children at singing alone. Whenever in the teacher's judgment the performance was below standard, she stopped the class, recorded the last word sung, and repeated the presentation in the same way. The teacher and the standard of judgment were constant. Part presentation differed in that one line was sung by the teacher, repeated with the class, then sung by the class alone, a procedure repeated with each line, followed by attempted reproduction of the entire song by the class. Retention was checked twenty-eight days later by recall and by relearning. Because of the highly subjective element of judgment involved and of the small number of classes included, no valid conclusion can be drawn from this experiment, though such differences in number of words mastered per trial as did appear favored whole presentation.

Experiment 10 was in a sense a control experiment. The nonsense poem of three verses of four lines each used by Ballard in his study of reminiscence presented more carefully controlled material for memorization than is found in meaningful poetry. According to the hypothesis, there would not be much difference between the methods of presentation because of the small meaningful and large rote element, but such difference as was apparent should favor the verse rather than the line or the total poem because the verse is united by rhythm and rhyme and is thus the strongest unit. The "part" group learned the poem by writing each line ten times; the "modified whole," in reality the "whole" group in the defined sense, wrote each verse ten times; and the "whole" group wrote the entire poem ten times. The differences between the three methods were very small, but such differences as appeared were in the expected direction. That is, learning by verses was slightly superior to learning either by lines or by the total poem, though learning by the total poem was somewhat superior to learning by lines.

In Series B there is again evident the tendency for the probability of a true difference to decrease with the passing of time. Analysis of the original data shows that this is a misleading fact, for even though the means retained their original relationships, the increased variability of performance usually noted with the passing of time lowers the critical ratio and hence the probable reliability of the difference. It is not, therefore, valid to state that differences tend to disappear in time, but rather that with the lapse

of time individual performance tends to vary more widely and thus decrease the reliability of any obtained difference.

In summary, Series B demonstrates that the principle of unitary presentation is applicable to classroom situations.

Summary and Interpretation

The problem of units for presentation is of increased importance today because of the integration movement in education and the Gestalt viewpoint in psychology. It is a problem which, though it has challenged attention, was still an open question. The series of experiments reported here attempted an analysis of the effect of the type of material used on the relative efficiency of whole and part presentation.

For the purpose of the study a whole was defined as a perceptual unit, a definitely segregated, independent pattern, possessing unity, coherence and meaning in itself above that implied by its parts. A part was defined as an element in a total situation which is essential to the meaning of the whole, but which loses its peculiar meaning when isolated from the whole. Problems were devised to ascertain the relative efficiency of whole and part methods with material meeting such a criterion.

Experiment 1 showed that the relative efficiency of whole and part presentation varies roughly with the degree of integration of the figure used. Experiments 2 through 5, Series A, established under laboratory conditions the facts that (1) part presentation saves time during presentation, (2) whole presentation is superior in mastery and retention, and (3) these generalizations are true for material with a large ideational element, but are in need of modification for problems approaching simple motor performance. Experiments 6 through 10, Series B, substantiated the laboratory findings and illustrated their meaning for classroom procedure. The principle appeared to operate independently of the characteristics of the subjects and of the specific material used.

How great the superiority of the whole method with such material varies with the degree of unity of the material and with the proportion of ideational and motor or rote learning involved. On the basis of the experiments cited it would seem safe to estimate that the chances of a reliable difference favoring the whole method in presenting such material would range from 75 in 100 to certainty, with a majority of the cases lying between 90 in 100 and certainty.

It may be argued that the transfer involved in testing on wholes when learning has been on parts invalidates the conclusions, but (1) transfer is an implicit part of any experiment where two methods are contrasted because testing, in order to be comparable, must be under conditions different from those used in learning for at least one group, and (2) in certain of the experiments where the test was on parts rather than on the whole the difference in favor of the whole method remains.

It must be remembered that the "whole" in the sense used in these experiments is a qualitative rather than a quantitative one. It is not necessarily the largest unit, but rather the unit which most clearly meets the definition proposed. Further, what constitutes a whole for an adult may not be a whole for the child with his limited grasp of meanings. What constitutes a whole for one purpose may be a part when another goal is involved. The concept is a relative rather than an absolute one, dependent upon the nature of the material, the maturity of the learner, and the purpose for which he is learning. If, however, the whole is selected with all these factors in mind, greater economy in learning may be expected.

The concept has possible implications for several phases of education. (1) In curriculum making, the present emphasis on integration would seem to have psychological justification within limits. Although the arbitrary or traditional subject organizations representative of the part method may lead to some saving of time in the immediate reproduction of such parts, the larger integrated "wholes" will be more economical in eventual mastery and in retention. The selection of life-like units within the grasp of the learner would seem justified. Conversely, there would seem to be no merit in merely grouping together unrelated segments under the head of "correla-

tion" unless there is an actual, perceivable relationship unifying them, a relationship in harmony with the purpose and maturity of the learner. (2) In the field of teaching method, organization of material into meaningful wholes and presentation of such material as wholes is the more economical way of teaching. Any given material may be presented in a number of different ways, utilizing varying gradations of the principle of unity. That organization which most nearly constitutes a perceptual unit will, according to this principle, prove most economical as the basis of presentation. (3) In the field of administrative organization, such a principle involves the breaking down of arbitrary subject barriers and perhaps to some extent of departmental organization based on the isolation of subjects, with the substitution of a more flexible system wherein materials may be organized around specific purposes and needs rather than in logical categories formulated by specialists.

MAY VIOLET SEAGOE was the recipient last year of the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship of Pi Lambda Theta. The foregoing article is a condensed statement of her doctor's dissertation. She received the A.B. in 1929 from the University of California at Los Angeles, the A.M. from Leland Stanford University in 1931 and the Ph.D. from the same institution in 1934. Her teaching experience has been coupled with a counseling program. At present she is Special Advisor of the Experimental Guidance Group of the Pasadena school system. Her work is both parent and child counseling for a group of two hundred children in one of the junior high schools. It is planned to counsel these children over a period of from four to eight years, comparing their outcomes with those of a control group which does not receive guidance. This project is a part of the study Dean Kefauver of Stanford is making for the Carnegie Corporation in three cities of this country.

A New Honorary Member

PI LAMBDA THETA is pleased to announce that Dr. Marion Monroe of Pittsburgh is the newest honorary member of the fraternity. She was initiated on January eighth by Delta chapter along with several active members.

Dr. Monroe has been Chief Psychologist of the Pittsburgh Child Guidance Center for the past four years. Her special field is that of reading disability. She has had valuable experience in the Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, the Psychopathic hospital of the State University of Iowa, and the Institute of Juvenile Research, Chicago. In 1924 she received the Master's degree at the University of Chicago and in 1929 she obtained the Ph.D. from the same institution. Dr. Monroe has given courses in the University of California at Los Angeles, New York State Teachers College, the University of Chicago, and the University of Pittsburgh. She is the author of a number of studies and monographs including:

"Children Who Cannot Read," University of Chicago Press, March 1932. Fourth Printing.

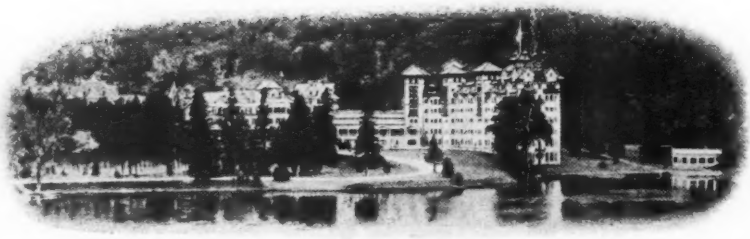
Monograph: "Methods for Diagnosis and Treatment of Cases of Reading Disabilities," Genetic Psychology Monographs, Clark University Press, Vol. IV, Nos. 4 and 5, Oct.-Nov. 1928.

Pamphlet: "Suggestions for Remedial Instruction in Reading," Institute for Juvenile Research Pamphlet, 1929, Second Edition, revised, 1931.

"The Drawings and Color Preference of Young Children," Abstracts of Ph.D. Theses, University of Chicago 1930.

"The Apparent Weight of Color and Correlated Phenomena," American Journal of Psychology, April, 1925.

The Locale of Biennial Council



THE BALSAMS, DIXVILLE NOTCH, N.H.

MOUNTAIN VIEW FROM HOTEL

August 26-29, 1935

Views Near the Balsams

Pine
Clad
Mountains

The Notch
Across
Lake
Gloriette

Women as Peers in Education

DORA V. SMITH

WRITTEN INTO the constitution of Pi Lambda Theta is the purpose to promote the cause of women in education. It is reminiscent of the days when Emma Willard, Mary Lyon, and Alice Freeman Palmer, fired by the vision of a new liberal education for women, struggled and triumphed in the cause of equal, though differentiated, opportunities for the sexes.

There are those among us who think we have failed to maintain the standards, to push forward the frontiers. Women, they tell us, are not recognized equally with men; witness the insignificant proportion of them in high places in the educational world today. Women do the menial tasks, they tell us, while men carry off the spoils. Women keep the wheels of organization running smoothly, while the men are abroad in search of public honor; note, for instance, the proportion of men on the program of the National Education Association, or of any other educational bodies which call for formal speech making from the public platform; or count, if you will, the number of women appointed chairmen of important committees. Furthermore, the effect of the depression has been, for various reasons, to limit rather than to extend the opportunities for service accorded to women.

Doubtless there is an element of truth in all these assertions. It seems unfortunate, however, to argue the case on the basis of sex alone; for pre-eminent among the findings of psychological research is the fact that the differences within each group far outnumber those between them.

The prevalence of such sentiments, on the other hand, suggests that the time is ripe for serious consideration of the situation by an organization like Pi Lambda Theta. It is obvious that we shall accomplish our ends, not by petulant tirades against the opposite sex, which seems inclined, on the whole, to recognize gladly whatever of scholarly contribution we women may have made; but rather by a careful examination of the nature and limitations of our achievement and the needed extension of it in the future.

It would seem self-evident, in the first place, that women, if they are to be recognized equally with men, must exert themselves to *qualify* equally with men. It is a matter of common knowledge on the average university campus that no self-respecting young man who looks forward to a future in higher institutions of learning stops short of the doctor's degree. It is equally patent that most women do. We are improving, to be sure, in numbers of candidates for advanced degrees, but we have far to go to equal the men. Nothing has come to my attention more forcibly during the past year than the dearth of women candidates adequately prepared for higher positions. For some five years, for instance, a Summer Session post in secondary school methods has gone begging because no woman was free to accept it who combined the Ph.D. degree and the qualifications necessary to direct research, with ability to demonstrate with boys and girls. Among the women with national reputations in the field in question, those so qualified in the entire United States could be numbered on the fingers of one hand. Furthermore, this is only one of four such positions, the other three regular openings for the school year, which have come to my attention in 1934. It is most discouraging to one interested in the future of women in education that they themselves should so stand in the way of their own professional advancement.

There is no organization in a better position to remedy this situation than Pi Lambda Theta. Surely it behooves those of us who are older in the profession to stimulate among the young women elected annually to membership a desire to play the game by so qualifying that they will be in a position to take advantage of the opportunities which the educational world offers them. Particularly is it our business to discover those who combine scholarly attainment with personality and spirit adequate to the translation of theory into practice and to the influencing of others in the direction of their own interests. In time of depression there are always those who,

having lost their positions by reason of indifferent success and anaemic personality, gravitate back to our higher institutions of learning for advanced study. It is especially important, therefore, in such times, that we hold before those already eminently successful in the classroom the ideal of increased possibilities for service through more adequate scholarly preparation.

Another field in which women have yet to take their place with men is that of research. The progress of education in any direction depends primarily upon our willingness to submit to impartial investigation problems concerning which intelligent men and woman have harangued each other futilely, because without evidence, for one decade after another. It is increasingly true that the men and women who are invited to address our great educational gatherings are those who have made some original contribution to our professional knowledge. To what extent have women contributed to the major fields of research? Again, we are improving annually in this regard but we are still far behind the men. In the educational world in general we outnumber the men four to one. We represent less than one-fourth of the membership in the National Society for the Study of Education. Or, to take a field which is primarily woman's so far as classroom instruction is concerned, we may ask ourselves to what extent women have contributed to the study and solution of problems related to the teaching of reading. Gray's recent summary of the ninety-four scientific or semi-scientific studies in reading reported in print during the school year, 1932-33, includes less than one in three carried on by women. Again, in the field more congenial to many teachers, the writing up of classroom activities, contributions to the *English Journal* may be taken as typical. In a nearby city with two-hundred and thirty-seven teachers of English, thirteen, or less than six per cent, are men. Of one-hundred and sixty contributors to the *English Journal* during the year 1934, forty-three per cent were women and fifty-seven per cent were men. The same situation obtains in even greater degree in educational periodicals of a more general character. Of the individual subscribers to the *School Review* approximately twelve per cent are women; of the contributors, twenty-four per cent. For the *Elementary School Journal,* the figures are four per cent and twenty-three per cent. Evidence all along the line suggests that if women are to be recognized equally with men, they must contribute in like measure to the constructive agencies for educational betterment at work in America today.

Furthermore, women in education tend to be specialists. We are good at details, at doing supremely well, in many cases, a certain limited task, without perhaps being conscious of the larger whole of which it is a part. We are primary teachers or teachers of high school English, art, or home economics. We are elementary school principals, guidance officers, or supervisors in specialized fields. The men and women who today wield a powerful influence from the public platform are those who have a vision of the larger task, of the social, economic, and cultural movements, in which the American public school finds its only excuse for being. One has but to face the responsibility of choosing speakers for such a program to realize the comparative dearth of women qualified to make such a contribution. Pi Lambda Theta can do much to foster such an outlook among women, to stimulate among us a sense of the broader implications of our teaching. It is in a position through its *Journal,* its annual dinner at the National Education Association, and its biennial conference, to promote among its members a more adequate understanding of the world for which the schools are preparing boys and girls, of the issues they must be ready to face, and of the forces in American life which have power to make or mar the future of the public schools.

In pursuit, then, of its purpose to promote the cause of women in education, Pi Lambda Theta has a crusade to preach to its younger members in particular, and the platform is this: (1) that if women are to be recognized equally with men in the educational world today, they must qualify equally with them by submitting to the discipline and yielding to the broadening influences of advanced study; (2) they must make active contribution to research through the scientific study of their own problems in the classroom and in the wider areas of educational

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Trends in Public School Art

ELLA VICTORIA DOBBS

HARD TIMES sometimes have a beneficent effect, and even a widespread depression may be made to yield its quota of advantages. Very significant proofs of this are already apparent in the field of Design and the Applied Arts. Leisure for most people means an opportunity to do something often desired but not possible in busiest times, and this desire often takes the form of attempts to beautify one's surroundings. Enforced unemployment sets the energetic person to hunting jobs with which to fill up his idle time and often leads to endeavors to increase his efficiency in some desirable and useful field. In many cases these endeavors lead into the field of design. Slow markets have spurred manufacturers to increase the appeal of their goods through greater attractiveness. A trade journal carries the following significant item:

"One phase of business about which little has been said is the rapid progress being made in redesigning products. Design engineers are being employed on a larger scale than for some time. Companies are showing a strong inclination to depart from all established orthodox designs and are developing newer ideas to help the saleability of their items. An increase of 15.5 per cent over 1933 in the employment of design engineers in 288 large manufacturing companies making metal products is revealed in the 1934 product development survey of one of the trade papers. Engineers are availing themselves of new and improved parts, materials, and finishes. It would truly seem that one of the results of the depression has been to force many manufacturers to turn to new products and new designs in an effort to get business."

The history of the recognition of art as a proper subject for the public school curriculum shows an interesting development in the conception of what art is and its place in the affairs of everyday life. Long before the days of public schools, artists were not only painters and sculptors, but architects and designers and makers of many small art objects in many materials. In the course of time, as one of the unhappy results of the advent of power machines, designing and making became separated. The makers became little more than machine tenders. The easy duplication possible by machinery stimulated over decoration on a low level. Because of this emphasis upon machine-made products, the wares, the various handicrafts were scorned by artists to a considerable extent and not recognized as art—and in many instances their scorn was fully justified. As a result of this attitude, when the demand for art instruction was met by the schools, the courses offered were chiefly drawing. The instruction until recent years was confined to copy work. Drawing books were half blank paper. A pattern or picture appeared on one page while the next was blank, ready to receive the pupil's usually pitiful attempt to reproduce. So lifeless a process could not in its very nature do more than discourage all but the few having marked talent. In like manner, early procedure in handwork was confined to attempts at accurate duplication of set models. It is not surprising that out of such a background should develop an attitude, still common among a large percentage of our population, that art is an unessential factor in real life—a sort of frill around the edge, pleasing to those who like frills, but quite unimportant. Evidences of this attitude are all too abundant in the recent records of measures of economy by many school boards which began with the dismissal of the art teacher.

Fortunately, two factors, quite separate in origin, have combined to bring about a different attitude toward art education. First, teachers of art are becoming aware of the progress made in the study of the learning process and are realizing the importance of creative expression as a factor in that process. They are realizing more and more the value of art processes as a medium of expression. They are more and more interested in the *producer* as well as the *product*. With this point of view, art processes become a

medium of expression related to many phases of the *regular* subjects and an integral part of every phase of everyday life. More and more teachers are becoming aware that not only children, but all of us, get our first notions of beauty in its relation to things. We recognize colors as they appeal to us in flowers, and in our clothing. We come to distinguish graceful from clumsy lines and proportions in the objects about us. Still further, we are recognizing the added interest of a definite purpose, as in making a design for a thing we wish to use. Out of all these factors has come a greater realization of the intimate part played by the elements of beauty in all phases of everyday life, and the interest growing out of power to control those elements and add beauty to things we use daily. This in turn has led to a rapidly growing increase of interest in the applied arts. Many old hand crafts are coming back into popularity— as for example weaving, which in colonial days was an essential industry of the home. Now, after being displaced for several generations by power machinery, it is coming back into use as an art craft—a medium through which lovers of beauty may realize the joy of creative expression in a most fascinating process.

In school courses, this realization of the relation of beauty to things within the child's interest, and this appreciation of the incentive of a definite goal in practical work, have, to a large extent, displaced the old drawing book and its futile copy work. Instead, from the lowest grades on up children are earnestly and happily striving to express their love of "pretty things" through the making of various projects related to home and school needs and are creating real beauty. They are steadily gaining power to master the factors which are essential to beauty. By observing the differences between the things they admire most and those less pleasing, they are coming to understand something of color harmony, something of space relationships and the part played by such fundamental principles as repetition, rhythm, balance, alteration, etc. Having made use of the principle spontaneously and having recognized its importance, children become, ere long, so well acquainted with the idea that a name for it is helpful and easily learned. This, of course, is quite the opposite procedure from our old time practice of learning a rule and then trying to apply it—a most lifeless and bewildering process. By selecting the things which the child works upon from his daily interests, he comes to connect what he learns about beauty with whatever he does and he finds Art not a mere frill around the edge but the fundamental structure as well as the decoration. He learns the secrets of color harmony and experiences the joy which color appreciation brings. He comes to realize more or less vividly that nothing that he does from morning to night is without its element of beauty.

Teachers of Art, like specialists in many other fields, have been inclined to concentrate their thinking on the product—the subject matter of their work—rather than upon the producer and its reflex upon his cultural progress, and have bent their energies toward developing marked talent in their pupils. On more than one occasion the writer has heard such comments as: "He will never do anything worth while; he has no ability. I try to freeze out that type of student. The sooner he learns that he can't succeed the better." Modern trends indicate a steady swing to a broader viewpoint which recognizes the cultural value of art for the sake of the producer. Instead of freezing out any or all who can not produce work of high quality in a given field, the interest which led him to seek training in art is capitalized and when he is encouraged to test out his powers in various mediums of expression, he generally finds some one in which he can successfully gratify his impulse for creative expression. He may not be able to control the more sensitive pencil or brush well enough to succeed in representative drawing, but he can manipulate the more mechanical tools used in weaving and produce textiles of great beauty, or he may find real joy in the geometric designs of chip carving. Again, the infinite possibilities in the shaping of clay into pottery forms or the more subtle lines of free modeling may prove the outlet for his creative impulses.

As expression proceeds in any material, the fundamental principles of line, form, and space relation become apparent to the worker in in-

creasing measure and his appreciation develops, often by leaps and bounds. Again, as in our escape from the old time drawing books, this is a reversal of the old method, still in too common use, of beginning with the definition of various principles and attempting to apply them before their significance is appreciated. Second, the commercial value of the application of art principles implied in the item from the trade journal, quoted above, has also had its reaction upon school courses. This also, is displacing the attitude that beauty is a non-essential frill around the edge.

Not many years since the press bandied about the tale that Mr. Ford had said he would not give five cents for all the art in the world and called attention to the lines of the old model T as proof of the truth of the story. Then, as all the world knows, Mr. Ford stopped building cars while his designers worked out plans for a new car, not only a better car, but a better-looking car. A glance about a stock of kitchen utensils finds in place of the old time dull gray pans and kettles a charming array of greens, blues, and creams in various combinations all ready to harmonize with the color of the kitchen stove and sink. The cold whiteness of bathrooms has given way to cheery tints in rose and other dainty hues, with rugs and towels in satisfying harmony. The same situation will be found wherever we may extend our research.

Still a third field, not yet so familiar, affects the direction of interest and service in the field of Art. We hear much of the increasing proportion of leisure time and the use to be made of it. As in the case of weaving referred to above, the artcrafts offer a wide range of activities varied enough to attract almost any taste. An archaeologist delving into the art products of an ancient people was struck by the fact that they bore no names. They were made for use, not for exhibit purposes. They gave evidence of use in every day life, signifying a real love for and appreciation of beauty by the common people. Since creative expression ranks first among our joyous satisfactions and since the artcrafts offer such a variety of mediums for creative expression, their increasing use in school courses of both elementary and high schools is not surprising and it is also gratifying to find in unexpected quarters, a growing interest in their use as leisure occupations. Frequent reports are noted of the organization of Art-craft Clubs, in which work is pursued for the pleasure of the activity as well as the value of the product. An optimistic prophet with a long vision looks forward to a time when creative expression in many materials will become universal and as an educative factor will rank next in importance to the use of the mother tongue. He visions a time when art expression will grow out of and be related to daily life and our enjoyment of beauty will demand still more galleries and museums in which to treasure and display our most outstanding successes.

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WOMEN AS PEERS IN EDUCATION

(Continued from page 68)

endeavor; (3) they must support through subscription and active contribution thereto, the educational organs and organizations which mould thought and practice in American schools today; and they must broaden their own educational vision and understanding through study of the educational forces and purposes which transcend in influence and in importance the more limited sphere of the average classroom; and all this they must do without impairing that contribution which has always been pre-eminently theirs, appreciation of and concern for the human values in our educational program, the individual personal development of the boys and girls entrusted to their care.

DORA V. SMITH is Associate Professor in Education at the University of Minnesota.

From the Foreign Legion*

FROM LEOPOLDVILLE, West Belgian Congo, Africa, has come the following account of her work by Etelka M. Shaffer of Alpha Gamma chapter:

A month has passed since we opened our school in the native village of Leopoldville, West. We have both morning and afternoon sessions and there is a growing demand for evening classes, the men promising to bring their lanterns and so solve the light question.

In the morning classes, we have an average attendance of 150 pupils, ranging from tiny tots to grown men. There is a class for young girls, small boys, older boys, and there are two classes for grown men. Most of the men are out of work and eager to make the most of this opportunity to go to school. Out of 80 men questioned at school the other morning, only ten had regular work. The many empty houses all around us here tell the story that the white men has suffered, too. All of the companies have had to make drastic cuts.

The men and boys come from two distinct tribes; the Bangala tribes from Upper Congo, and the BasCongo from Lower Congo. They come from all over the colony, and we have one from the Camerouns. Many have worked for the textile companies, traders, etc. Others have been the boy helpers for the white men, State or company, and have been stranded here in the city waiting for the white men who have not returned, or attracted by the lure of a city. Among them are chauffeurs, fishermen, carpenters, etc. We have all types; tall and thin, short and fat; some with great gashes in their faces telling the tribe from which they come; others with their teeth sawed to fine points, and holes in nostrils and ears, others with faces cut in various designs with great welts. Some wear lions' teeth for watch charms.

To help me with this morning school,I have one trained teacher, two others with some training, and two others with little classroom training but with much evangelistic experience, the one the pastor for the Bangalas and the other for the BasCongos. We are attempting to follow the State curriculum.

Monday and Tuesday afternoons, we have classes in French for the men and the boys with over 100 in attendance. Some of these men have work in the morning or the evening and are glad for this opportunity to attend school. The rest of the afternoon classes, we have given over to the women, even though the men protested very much saying that the women did not need to learn. When some of the women came at first to the morning classes, the men complained that when they arrived home at noon, there was no dinner prepared. The afternoon classes do not interfere with the domestic order. We have an average attendance of 50 women. On Wednesday we have sewing classes and on Thursday classes in reading and writing. The eagerness is really pathetic. The wives of my morning school teachers and pastors volunteered to teach these women's classes, and so we are able to do some intensive work from 2:30 to 4:00. Most of the women's work is in the Lingala language.

I am the only white person out at the school most of the time. The school is a good half hour's walk from here. I am now going in a push-push, a sort of two wheeled jinriksha affair. Since automobiles have made their appearance in the city a few years ago, the push-push has become a curiosity. Most of my way is through the native village and I can make the trip in fifteen or twenty minutes according to how fast the boy runs. When we reach the last corner, he always makes an extra effort to run with all his might and we turn the corner with a great swing and make enough noise with the rattling wheels to announce to all that "Mama" has arrived and that school will soon start.

Two of our workers who were here when I first arrived, have left to go on a four months' tour in the Kikongo and Vanga districts. They will not be here again until April or May. With

* EDITOR'S NOTE: These further accounts of life outside "The States" have come in response to queries sent out some months ago.

their going, the supervision of the evangelistic work became my responsibility, too.

We have two pastors, one for the Bangalas and one for the BasCongos. Every evening there are vesper services including two Inquirers classes, one for each tribe, and Wednesday evenings, one of the young men, Jean Baptiste, is giving a series of lectures on Pilgrim's Progress in the two languages. Sunday morning, the Bangalas hold their services from eight to nine; the BasCongos from nine to ten. In the afternoon at four o'clock, there is a union service which is very interesting, especially when the two tribes sing the songs in unison, each in its own tongue. Besides this, we have the oversight of some of the villages around us which includes one head teacher and four under assistants. These teachers come in every Saturday afternoon for a special class. I can tell you more about these village schools later.

Leopoldville is now the capital of the Belgian Congo. It is divided into Leopoldville East and Leopoldville West. We live in the western section which has a white population of about 500 at the present time and about 8,000 black. However, there are days when I see only the neighbors on either side of me and sometimes not even those. Leopoldville is situated about four degrees below the equator and has an altitude of about 1200 feet.

Our houses on our compound face the Congo river and we can look across to the French Congo. The compound is very pretty with its many palm and mango trees. I am living alone in a very comfortable, airy house with nice neighbors on either side: the treasurer who has just married her nice Englishman on the one side, and another couple, who have taken over the work of the secretaryship of the Protestant Congo Mission. Both families are friendly, helpful, and neighborly.

We who live in the city have the advantage of running water and electricity, and once in a while we enjoy an auto ride.

These few notes will give you a glimpse of the work before me and my home surroundings. One lone person can just touch the edges of all that there is to be done. The people are responding, the services are well attended in our new church school building in the native village, outside of the city limits; the applicants for the Inquirers class are increasing, the need is great.

Just a block away from our church school, there is a market place where the main produce sold is the native drink which is very intoxicating, and on Sunday afternoon there is more sold than at any other time. The native drums begin to beat for the dances just about the same time that our services start. There are many problems.

I am feeling very well and seem to thrive on the quinine diet of five grains a day. I am enjoying the work.

Mrs. Helen Elgie Scott is a member of Xi chapter. She writes from Talas, Asia Minor:

Now we are having our summer vacation, and since Mother and I plan to leave Turkey this fall, we decided not to go out of the country this summer but to see something of Anatolia. Living in the cosmopolitan center of Istanbul does not give one an adequate idea of the country as a whole. So on July 12th, we took passage on one of the Black Sea steamers for Samsun,—a voyage usually taking thirty-six hours,—and from there we rode in a camion another six hours to the mission station of Merzifoun. Before autos came into use on these roads, it took the early missionaries two or three days to make this same journey, in wagons. Two friends were with us and we four occupied the one seat behind the driver while all the other passengers sat on top of the freight behind us. . . . Our road wound up and up and up those picturesque hills with an occasional downward sweep into a fertile valley and past harvest fields where entire families were at work,—the babies in cradles under trees or in the shade of hay stacks.

At Merzifoun, we were the guests of a doctor and his wife, who make East Lansing, Michigan, their home when on furlough. It was a most delightful home to visit and we were thankful indeed for the good rest in the cooler air. This mission station is a real community center and the villagers come freely to the gardens and playground and the reading-room and the doctor's daily clinic. Although school was not in session we met a number of the school girls in

their homes. Two of them invited us to come out to their vineyard for an out-door feast,—a feast which included two roasted lambs stuffed with spiced rice.

Another day we had the opportunity of watching the villagers at the festivities of a wedding. For three days and nights, preceding the ceremony, there was music and dancing at the home of the bride and also at the home of the groom, then after the wedding, three more days of this at the new home. After we had looked on for an hour or so, the novelty of the solo dancing had worn away for us and it seemed rather monotonous but to the villagers this is the biggest entertainment of the whole year,—it is cinema, opera, everything all in one.

One day, my friends and I made an expedition to Amassia. It brought past ages very near to look up at that rocky citadel, a thousand feet above the town, where there has been a fortress for four thousand years. From inside this fortress, there are steps cut down 150 feet to a spring of water and because of this, the garrison was able to withstand the siege of Timerlane for seven months. Mithridates made this place his headquarters for military operations. The old Roman walls still stand, in part, and the tombs of the kings of Pontus, hewn in the solid rock. The little town below, clinging to the very edge of the cliffs, appeared in danger of falling off into the river. The bridge crossing this river is on piers built on the top of arches of the old Roman bridge. As the river cut its way deeper and deeper, there came the need of a higher bridge. . . . This trip to Amassia was certainly worthwhile and it did not matter a bit that we acquired a lot of black-and-blue spots on the way home because we bounced about so much in the car over the rough roads.

On leaving Merzifoun to come on here to Talas, we went out to the railroad, two hours slow ride in a native carriage without seats, (we sat on cushions on the floor of the carriage), then by train to Kayseri, a day and a night of travelling. On ancient maps this is marked "Mazaca Caeserea in Cappadocia." Here we were met at five o'clock in the morning and taken another five miles in an auto to Talas, but there had been a terrific cloud-burst the day before and the town was still flooded and houses and bridges had been washed away. But we had to walk up only the last, highest hill. Some streets were quite obliterated as massive boulders had been washed down from the mountain sides but although so many houses and gardens were destroyed, marvelously no lives were lost. We hear of many miraculous rescues, but most of the people who lost their houses were out in their vineyards for the summer so were safe on higher ground.

Our place here, connected with the Trades School for Boys, is on the top of the highest hill at an altitude equal to that of Denver—an excellent place for us to "recharge the batteries" for another year's work. So that we may know more about this part of the world, we have been reading ancient Hittite history. . . . Did you ever hear about the Troglodytes of Asia Minor? In the *National Geographic* for April, 1919, there is an illustrated article that will tell you what we saw one day. But even those illustrations did not fully prepare us for the wonders of that region. That day will always be counted as the opportunity of a life-time.

When the missionaries here, connected with the school, went out to some of the villages to visit in the homes of their pupils, we were glad to be taken along. . . . Such dire poverty in these meagre homes, yet we were received most cordially. These folks fed us with apricots from their orchards, then insisted on serving us a meal also. Would you think you could entertain unexpected guests for dinner if you had *no* dishes and *no* chairs and *no* table? In the room where we sat on rug-covered divans, a big copper tray was brought in with a steaming-hot bowl of food in the center, surrounded by forks and wooden spoons for each of us. One of the men turned over the stool upon which he had been sitting, the tray was then placed on the upturned legs of that and there was the dining-table all set! Towels were then placed over our laps (instead of napkins) and we proceeded to break off chunks of the dark bread to eat with the savory meat, the rice and eggs in the big bowl, each one dipping into it in turn. This bread had been baked in a hole in the ground in which hot stones had been placed. . . . Even

in the most humble of these homes, nothing was lacking of the spirit of true hospitality for these people were sharing with us the very best they had.

In a few more days, we'll be returning to Istanbul to pack up our possessions there and then take ship to Greece. In the American Junior College for Girls at Ellenico, (a suburb of Athens,) the head of the English Department takes her furlough this year and I've agreed to take her place. In addition to English classes in both the High School and the College, I'll have some history classes. Think of having a class in History of Art within an auto-bus ride of the Museum of Athens and the Parthenon!

In Turkey, the most serious and pressing matters seem to be those connected with the development of the rural districts. The government of Kemal Pasha has already made wonderful progress in developing the material resources of the country and the establishing of new industries, but these are subsidiary to the promotion of real education.

Although Angora appears as a growing up-to-date city, and Istanbul as a busy, metropolitan center, yet only a few miles distant from these one finds the most backward conditions. Living conditions are still so crude in rural districts that young teachers are unwilling to leave the cities where they have received their training. In order to overcome this difficulty, the government Normal Schools have made this arrangement: free board and tuition for students while in training, and in return, each student signs a contract to teach in government schools wherever assigned, and at least the first year of this service must be in some rural district. Marriage does not annul this contract. In fact, the marriage of a woman teacher makes no more apparent change in her way of living than does that of a man; it does not even change her name. Her work continues just as before, then when her children come, arrangement is made at the school for a temporary substitute, and her pay continues!

A girl may enter this Normal School directly from the primary school, so it really corresponds to an ordinary High School, at present, but the need of raising the standard is keenly felt.

The contribution of the American teacher in Turkey has been the emphasis placed upon character training, as this is evidenced in class-room methods, and sharing the government of the school with the students. In the ordinary native school, there is over-emphasis on mere lesson-learning, and in contrast with this, we find the students in the American schools more concerned with real learning.

There are a few real educators among the Turkisk teachers who recognize these lacks and weaknesses of the present system, and when their hands are strengthened, we may see great changes in both methods and aims. In the meantime, a real opportunity is that of the American teacher. But along with professional ability must be joined tact and patience to deal with the obstacles erected by the intense nationalism of the present day.

Life is certainly most interesting over here: and one tends to lose sight of the merely personal problems of self when in the midst of the complicated problems of the many in these countries where race and nationality may conflict.

For me, these past three years in the American Academy for Girls at Scutari, Istanbul, have been worth much in companionship with the members of the loyal staff there,—Armenian, American and Turkish,—and also in companionship with the girls whom I found in my class-rooms.

Now there is another need in this Junior College for Girls at Ellenico, Athens, so I'm here, for the year, at least.

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